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4 **Trained vs. consumer panels for analytical testing: Fueling a long lasting debate in**  
5 **the field**

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18 **Abstract**

19           Sensory evaluation has traditionally been divided into two clearly defined areas:  
20 analytical tests, aimed at objectively evaluating the sensory characteristics of products, and  
21 hedonic tests, in which consumers evaluate their acceptance/preference. One of the central  
22 dogmas of the field has been matching these two types of tests to different types of assessors  
23 respectively: selected and trained assessors and regular consumers of the target products.  
24 Consumers have been for years regarded as not capable of performing analytical tasks.  
25 However, the development of various alternative methods for sensory characterization in the  
26 last couple of decades, has agitated the debate about the use of untrained assessors for  
27 analytical tasks in sensory science. Lately, the line between trained and consumer panels for  
28 analytical tests has blurred and is expected to continue to do so. The present opinion paper  
29 discusses some of the most relevant issues around the debate of whether consumer or trained  
30 assessor panels are appropriate for analytical testing in specific application and to provide  
31 recommendations for practitioners on this respect.

32

33 **Keywords:** *descriptive analysis; sensory characterization; sensory evaluation; trained*  
34 *assessors; consumers; panels*

## 35 **1. Introduction**

36           Sensory evaluation can be defined as a scientific discipline that evokes, measures,  
37 analyzes, and interprets responses to the characteristics of products as perceived by the  
38 senses (Stone & Sidel, 2004). This discipline has traditionally been divided into two clearly  
39 defined areas: analytical tests, aimed at objectively evaluating the sensory characteristics of  
40 products, and hedonic tests, in which consumers evaluate their acceptance/preference  
41 (O'Mahony, 1995). One of the central dogmas of the field has been matching these two types  
42 of tests to different types of assessors (Lawless & Heymann, 2010).

43           Analytic tests have traditionally been performed with trained assessors, who are  
44 selected based on their sensory acuity for basic characteristics (basic tastes, odours and  
45 textures) and their ability to discriminate among products (Stone & Sidel, 2010). After  
46 selection, assessors are familiarized with the testing procedures and are trained and retrained  
47 to recognize/describe/quantify the sensory characteristics of the target products in a reliable  
48 way (Lawless & Heymann, 2010).

49           On the other hand, hedonic tests are carried out with frequent consumers of the target  
50 products, which are asked to indicate their liking or preference based on an integrated  
51 evaluation (Lawless & Heymann, 2010). Consumers perceive products as a whole and usually  
52 give different relative importance to the sensory characteristics of products through a process  
53 of synthesis that determines their hedonic reaction (Jaeger, Wakeling, & MacFie, 2000).

54           The distinction between analytic and hedonic tests implies that test methods and  
55 assessors cannot be mismatched (Lawless & Heymann, 2010). Wide consensus exists  
56 regarding the idea that trained assessors cannot perform hedonic tests, as they are trained to  
57 leave out their personal preferences and to evaluate products using specific criteria. Added to  
58 this, a small trained panel (usually  $n \leq 10$ ) could never be representative of a target market  
59 (Stone & Sidel, 2004). Thus, hedonic perception of products by a few trained assessors does  
60 not represent naïve consumers' wide and varied perception and cannot be regarded as a  
61 measure of the potential performance of the product in the marketplace (Lawless & Heymann,  
62 2010; O'Mahony, 1979).

63           Conversely, consumers have been traditionally regarded as not capable of performing  
64 analytical tasks and evaluating the sensory characteristics of products in a reliable way  
65 (Meilgaard et al., 1999). According to Stone & Sidel (2004), conducting analytical tests with  
66 untrained assessors poses several risks to the validity of the results, which are usually  
67 underappreciated. However, two decades ago Moskowitz (1996) challenged this idea and  
68 claimed that consumers were actually able to accurately rate the intensity of the sensory  
69 characteristics of products, providing similar results to trained assessors' panels. Moskowitz'  
70 article was strongly criticized (Dugle, 1997; Hough, 1998), and initiated a strong debate in the  
71 sensory and consumer field that has been ongoing until now. The development of various  
72 alternative flexible methods for sensory characterization, which can be adapted to panels with  
73 different degrees of training (Liu, Schou Grønbeck, Di Monaco, Giacalone, & Bredie, 2016),  
74 has fueled and agitated the debate about the use of untrained assessors for analytical tasks  
75 in sensory science (Valentin, Chollet, Lelièvre, & Abdi, 2012; Varela & Ares, 2012). In the last  
76 decade, the line between trained and consumer panels for analytical tests has blurred and is  
77 expected to continue to do so (Meiselman, 2013).

78           In this context, the aim of the present opinion paper is to discuss some of the most  
79 relevant issues that have been involved in the discussion of whether consumer or trained  
80 assessor panels are appropriate for a specific application and to provide recommendations  
81 for practitioners on this respect.

82

## 83 **2. Revisiting the arguments against the use of consumers for analytical tasks**

84           Trained assessors have been a cornerstone of sensory evaluation since its  
85 establishment as a scientific discipline, which can be probably traced down to the use of  
86 professional tasters or experts that worked in the food, beverage and personal care industries  
87 since the beginning of the 20th century (Meilgaard et al., 1999). Assessor selection and  
88 training have been considered one of the basis of the objectivity and validity of sensory data,  
89 as trained assessors have been regarded as instruments that record what they perceive with  
90 their senses.

91 Trained assessor panels have been strongly recommended to provide actionable  
92 information in new product development and quality control, as well as to fully characterize  
93 the sensory properties of food and non-food products. The use of trained assessors over  
94 consumers to perform analytical tasks has been justified based on three main arguments:  
95 sensory acuity, reliability and cost efficiency (Moskowitz, 1996). Added to this, consumers  
96 have been highlighted to act in a “non-analytic frame of mind” and to not have enough  
97 knowledge about specific attributes, confusing some of them (Lawless & Heymann, 2010). In  
98 the following sections these arguments are discussed in the light of results from recent  
99 scientific studies, as well as methodological and practical considerations, including actual  
100 common practices in industrial and academic environments.

101

## 102 **2.1. Sensory acuity or familiarity with experimental procedures?**

103 Trained assessors are selected based on their sensory acuity (Lawless & Heymann,  
104 2010), meaning that, on average, they are expected to be more sensitive than naïve  
105 consumers. According to Stone & Sidel (2004), 30% of the people who usually volunteer to  
106 participate in a panel do not meet the qualifying criteria because they do not reach the  
107 minimum level of sensitivity and reliability. This simple and basic step in their selection implies  
108 that trained assessor panels may be more sensitive than consumers for identifying specific  
109 sensory characteristics or detecting differences between samples. However, although trained  
110 assessors usually outperform consumers in their perceptual and verbal abilities for sample  
111 evaluation, it is not always the case.

112 Several studies have shown that training improves assessors' ability to discriminate  
113 among samples (Cardello et al., 1982; Clapperton & Piggott, 1979; Fernández-Vázquez,  
114 Stinco, Hernanz, Heredia, Vicario, 2013; Guerrero, Gou & Arnau, 1997; Ishii, Kawaguchi,  
115 O'Mahony, & Rousseau, 2007; Labbe, Rytz, & Hugi, 2004; Sawyer, Cardello, & Prell, 1988;  
116 Solomon, 1990). Similarly, Peron & Allen (1988) reported that perceptual training increases  
117 assessors' ability to detect beer specific flavours, whereas Cain (1979) showed that practice  
118 and feedback improved people's ability to identify odours.

119            However, a large number of studies have shown no superiority of trained assessors  
120 over consumers. Several studies have shown no effect of training on discrimination (Roberts  
121 & Vickers; 1994, Wolters & Allchurch, 1994; Chambers & Smith; 1993). Similarly, olfactory  
122 thresholds have been reported to not differ between trained and untrained assessors (Bende  
123 & Nordin, 1997; Parr, Heatherbell, & White, 2002). Besides, according to Lawless (1984) the  
124 difference between experts and novices in their ability to describe white wine is small.

125            Differences between trained assessors and consumers are mainly found on stimuli on  
126 which the former have been previously trained. According to Chollet, Valentin, & Abdi (2005)  
127 trained assessors do not generalize their perceptual learning and, consequently, they do not  
128 differ from consumers in their ability to discriminate unknown stimuli. These authors explained  
129 this lack of perceptual transfer to perceptual learning: assessors learn to extract and encode  
130 the sensory characteristics that are optimal for discriminating a set of samples, which may not  
131 be useful to discriminate among other stimuli.

132            Therefore, although it has been widely accepted that trained assessors outperform  
133 consumers, their superiority seems to be mainly related to their familiarity with the  
134 experimental procedures used for sample evaluation (Ishii et al., 2007), as well as their ability  
135 to describe their perception (Chollet & Valentin, 2001). **In this sense, recent studies have**  
136 **shown short familiarization steps can improve consumer performance in analytical tests (Liu**  
137 **et al., 2016; Jaeger et al., 2017).**

138            Even if trained assessors are more discriminative than consumers, the main question  
139 is whether this matters. Do we want to base our decisions on the perception of assessors  
140 highly trained in detecting small differences among samples? The answer to this question is  
141 “It depends”. When the aim of the study is to assure that sensory differences between products  
142 are negligible for consumers, trained assessors may provide conservative responses for  
143 project managers. However, when trained assessors are able to detect differences among  
144 samples, the key question is whether the difference between products is relevant for  
145 consumers. In these situations, discrimination-testing programs conducted with trained  
146 assessors require tools relating the discriminative ability of trained and consumer panels

147 (Rousseau, 2015). Therefore, consumer panels are indeed relevant for decision making to  
148 determine when the sensory differences perceived by trained assessors translate into sensory  
149 or hedonic differences for consumers.

150

## 151 **2.2. Reliability: A matter of adequacy of experimental procedures**

152 Another relevant argument against the use of consumers for analytical tasks has been  
153 related to the fact that consumer attribute information is not reliable because they face several  
154 difficulties for understanding product attributes and scales (Muñoz, 1997; Stone & Sidel,  
155 2004). However, this direct comparison is not fair, as trained assessors use a common and  
156 standardized vocabulary, previously learnt evaluation protocols, and are thoroughly trained to  
157 rate the intensity of sensory attributes using scales with clearly defined references (Lawless  
158 & Heymann, 2010). On the other hand, when consumers are asked to evaluate specific  
159 sensory attributes they are not usually given precise instructions about how to evaluate or rate  
160 the products. **In this sense, it should be taken into account that a limited amount of training  
161 can largely improve assessor performance in analytical tasks (Liu et al., 2016; Jaeger et al.,  
162 2017; Saint Saint-Eve, Lenfant, Teillet, Pineau, & Martin, 2011). Similarly, for descriptive  
163 analysis it has been reported that the first few sessions provide the biggest gains in terms of  
164 ability to discriminate among samples and increasing consensus among assessors (Byrne,  
165 Bredie, & Martens, 1999; Byrne, O'Sullivan, Dijksterhuis, Bredie, & Martens, 2001).**

166 Consumer interpretation of specific sensory attributes may be highly heterogeneous  
167 as they may have different interpretation of the meaning of specific sensory attributes. This  
168 has been previously shown for complex texture attributes such as creaminess (Antmann,  
169 Ares, Varela, Salvador, Coste, & Fiszman, 2011). Lack of consensus in consumer evaluations  
170 of attribute intensities using scales is also expected, as consumers might be strongly  
171 influenced by their personal preferences and previous experiences with the product category.  
172 Ares, Bruzzone, & Giménez (2011) reported large heterogeneity in consumer intensity ratings  
173 of texture attributes (particularly for complex attributes, such as creaminess and  
174 homogeneous) and showed that the great majority of consumers were not able to use

175 unstructured intensity scales to indicate differences in the texture of a set of vanilla milk  
176 desserts. However, at the average level consumers provided the same information than  
177 trained assessors regarding significant differences among samples, despite differences in the  
178 range of the scale used for sample evaluation. Similar results have been reported by  
179 Bruzzone, Vidal, Antúnez, Giménez, Deliza, & Ares (2015), Husson, Le Dien & Pagès (2011),  
180 Moskowitz (1996), and Worch, Lê, & Punter (2010).

181         Although average intensity scores from consumers have been shown to be similar to  
182 those obtained with trained assessors in several specific studies, care must be taken when  
183 interpreting intensity ratings from consumers as they do not have common references for  
184 scaling. The use of intensity scales for sample evaluation is basically an extension of the  
185 experimental procedures used with trained assessors. In the authors' opinion, experimental  
186 procedures should be adapted to the characteristics of the assessors involved in the test.  
187 Therefore, when sensory characterization with consumers is sought, researchers are  
188 encouraged to use standardization procedures to remove individual differences in scale use  
189 or to apply methodologies that get rid of individual differences in scaling.

190         For example, methodologies based on ranking (e.g. flash profile), attribute selection  
191 (e.g. check-all-that-apply questions) or global similarities and differences among samples (e.g.  
192 sorting or projective mapping) can be a better choice for sensory characterization with  
193 consumers than scales. In this sense, research has shown that the former methodologies  
194 provide reliable results and that in most instances provide comparable results to descriptive  
195 analysis with trained assessors (Ares et al., 2015; Chollet, Lelièvre, Abdi, & Valentin, 2011;  
196 Delarue & Sieffermann, 2004; Moussaoui & Varela, 2010; Risvik, McEwan, & Rodbotten,  
197 1997). Besides, consumer panels have been shown to be repeatable at the aggregate level  
198 (e.g. Jaeger et al., 2013; Vidal et al., 2014; Vidal, Jaeger, Antúnez, Giménez, & Ares, 2016).  
199 However, tools for evaluating the reliability of consumer panels are still necessary.  
200 Researchers should be able to demonstrate the reliability of their data collected with consumer  
201 panels as they usually do with trained assessors (Ares, 2015).

202         Regarding sample description, it should be taken into account that trained assessors



203 tend to have a more precise vocabulary than consumers and to use it more efficiently to  
204 describe samples (Chollet & Valentin, 2001). Consumers usually use less technical, more  
205 ambiguous and redundant terms, as well as words related to hedonics or attribute intensity to  
206 describe samples than trained assessors (Moskowitz et al., 2003; Lelièvre, Chollet, Valentin,  
207 & Abdi, 2008; Veramendi, Herencia, & Ares, 2013). Although this may be seen as a  
208 disadvantage, it is important to stress that it may not be a problem when the objective of the  
209 study is to discriminate among samples. Besides, working with consumer vocabulary enables  
210 the identification of relevant terms for the design marketing and communication campaigns.

211         Added to the perceptual aptitude itself, a good sensory panelist is not only expected  
212 to be more sensitive than the average, but also to be articulate and to have a good descriptive  
213 ability. Besides, as concept formation is dependent on prior experience, when assessors are  
214 trained for descriptive analysis, they are taught how to create their own scientific language for  
215 the product category of interest, creating a “frame of reference” for the panel as a group  
216 (Murray, 2001; Lawless & Heymann, 2010). So, in a way, panelists are first selected to be  
217 articulate, being able to express their perception, and subsequent training makes them able  
218 to describe products in a homogenous way. Consumers, on the contrary, could generate long  
219 lists of words, much less consensual – and sometimes quite complex to interpret – but  
220 undoubtedly richer. Consumer vocabulary expands the possibilities of capturing consumers’  
221 sensory perceptions in their own words, as it has been shown in many studies that have  
222 compared methods of sensory description with consumers (Delarue, 2015; Fiszman, Salgado,  
223 Orrego, & Ares, 2015; Moussaoui & Varela, 2010; Veinand et al., 2011; Varela & Ares, 2012,  
224 Valentin et al., 2012).

225         In summary, it has been demonstrated that consumers are able to reliably evaluate  
226 the sensory characteristics of products, even if large individual differences in how they  
227 describe products and rate the intensity of sensory attributes exist. Researchers are  
228 encouraged to use methodologies adapted that take into account these differences as well as  
229 the lack of training.

230

### 231 **2.3. Cost efficiency: A matter of objective and context**

232 Trained assessor panels have been regarded as a cost efficient option as they usually  
233 involve a limited number of people that work at the test location. However, it should be taken  
234 into account that creating and maintaining a well-trained panel can be expensive in several  
235 circumstances. For this reason, the relative cost of trained and consumer panels strongly  
236 depends on the objective of the study and context.

237 In the authors' experience, several big companies need sensory information for the  
238 development of a specific product a few times a year, which makes consumer panels the most  
239 cost-efficient option. Also, several small food companies usually cannot afford to maintain a  
240 trained panel and therefore consumer panels consist of the only alternative to gather objective  
241 information for decision making.

242 On the contrary, when sensory information is needed on a daily or even monthly basis,  
243 trained panels continue to be the most cost-efficient option. Nevertheless, when companies  
244 are already doing consumer testing for new product development, the use of alternative  
245 methods for sensory characterization can give them many interesting inputs without the need  
246 of having a trained panel.

247 Therefore, the cost efficiency of trained assessor and consumers for analytical testing  
248 depends on the aim of the study. Researchers should analyze the costs associated with each  
249 panel for each specific project.

250

## 251 **3. Additional arguments regarding the use of trained and consumer panels**

252 Apart from the traditional arguments involved in the discussion of whether consumer  
253 panels should be used for analytical testing, there are several additional issues that should be  
254 taken into account. The following sections address some of the issues that in the authors' view  
255 have not received enough attention yet.

256

### 257 **3.1. Can trained assessors be considered as analytical instruments?**

258 Trained assessors have been traditionally regarded as analytical instruments, capable

259 of providing accurate and repeatable evaluations of the sensory characteristics of products.  
260 But, are human beings really able to behave as analytical instruments? The answer is no.  
261 Sensory perception does not only depend on the physicochemical characteristics of products.  
262 Instead, it depends on several integrated physiological, psychological and physical processes  
263 that occur in our brain (Schifferstein, 1996). Frijters (1993) discusses three processes involved  
264 from perception of a physical stimulus to an intensity rating: i) transformation of the physical  
265 stimulus into a sensation, ii) representation of the stimulus into an internal subjective  
266 continuum and storage into working memory, and iii) transformation of the subjective  
267 continuum into a response to the experimental task. These processes are influenced by the  
268 experimental procedure, the experimental design, changes in physiological or cognitive  
269 parameters during the test and contextual information about the stimulus (Schifferstein, 1996).  
270 Therefore, responses from trained assessors to any analytical tests should be considered as  
271 context-dependent and not as absolute responses from an analytic instrument.

272 Furthermore, even if trained assessors could behave as analytical instruments, their  
273 data would only serve for limited purposes as they would not reflect what consumers perceive  
274 or how they behave in their daily life. In his nice paper, Köster (2003) discusses several  
275 fallacies that are usually encountered in sensory and consumer science. In the following sub-  
276 sections, the implications of some of the fallacies highlighted by Köster in the discussion of  
277 whether consumers or trained panels should be used for analytical tests.

278

### 279 **3.2. Much more than sensory acuity**

280 As discussed above, sensory perception is not only a question of sensitivity; attention  
281 and cognitive processing of the signals we attend to are also important variables in this  
282 discussion. Perceptual attention seems to determine what we consciously perceive- and  
283 subsequently describe. We only perceive that to which we attend to, although many times we  
284 perceive much more than we seem to notice (Noë & O'Regan, 2000). In particular, these two  
285 phenomena would compete when assessors are acting in analytical –focusing on particular  
286 individual attributes - vs holistic mode. Some researchers in the area have suggested that the

287 process of synthesis (the way sensory information about products is analyzed and processed)  
288 might be different between consumers and trained panelists (Jaeger et al., 2000), and even  
289 within the same descriptive panel because of the different cognitive styles (Varela et al. 2014;  
290 Vidal et al., 2015; Antúnez et al., 2015). Further than this, individual differences in preferred  
291 ways of processing information or cognitive styles are also expected to influence responses  
292 to analytical tasks. In particular, the wholistic-analytic dimension, which separates people who  
293 have tendency to process information globally (wholistic), and those who have tendency to  
294 process information in detail and to focus on specific characteristics (analytic) (Peterson &  
295 Deary, 2006), could be very much related to the different performance of individual assessors  
296 within a trained panel. However, this would also mean that some consumers, even if less  
297 sensitive, could be more analytically framed and might perform better in analytical tasks.  
298 Kinner and Bongartz (2015) also suggested the idea of the difference between distinct  
299 cognitive reflection types (slow and fast thinkers) and their ability to discriminate in consumer  
300 tests. Their results showed that that slow thinkers had a higher ability to discriminate between  
301 samples in consumer testing, but this could also well be the case in sensory testing. This is a  
302 completely new area, which remains to be explored.

303         Vocabulary generation and training in classic descriptive analysis aims at generating  
304 a list of measurable attributes or scorecard (Stone & Siedel, 2004; Stone, 2015). However,  
305 what happens when a particular attribute in a product set is not easily measurable? Possible  
306 cases are when the particular attribute is at the same level in all the products of the category  
307 under study, or when it is present in a low, just noticeable intensity. Many times, those  
308 attributes can be disregarded by trained panels, taken out of the scorecard because they do  
309 not discriminate among samples. However, those attributes might be in fact drivers of  
310 consumer liking or disliking. Those particular attributes could be an off-note, or a positive “must  
311 have” attribute, even if present in low intensity. Sometimes attributes with high intensities  
312 might be not discriminative for the trained panel, but be determinant of consumer acceptance  
313 or rejection, for instance because of an unbalance caused by the levels of other attributes.  
314 Let’s take the example of espresso coffee. Espresso brewed in different machines or with

315 different brewing parameters can have big variations in the amount and characteristics of  
316 crema (bubble size, viscosity, etc.), so you can brew two cups using exactly the same coffee,  
317 resulting in completely different consumer experiences. Those two coffees can have no  
318 significant differences in bitterness intensity rating as assessed by a highly trained panel, but  
319 bitterness will be perceived by consumers at completely different levels because of the  
320 mouthfeel effect generated by the crema. Consumers could reject one of the samples because  
321 of its enhanced bitterness, and they could easily describe their perception as: “this coffee is  
322 too bitter, I don’t like it”. Even if mouthfeel could in principle also affect the perception of the  
323 panel, highly trained analytical assessors are usually able to “deconstruct” the sensory profile  
324 and to assess the individual attributes independently. Added to this, many times when tasting  
325 beverages in individual servings, particularly when focusing on flavor, samples may be bulked  
326 in thermoses before being tasted by the panel (to account for machine differences, to get  
327 homogenous samples among the panel and control temperature throughout the tasting  
328 session). For the case of the example, following these kind of procedures the effect of crema  
329 would be lost for the trained panel.

330 **In several circumstances, consumers could in fact be even a better sensory tool than**  
331 **trained assessors, because of their particular cognitive thinking styles or their language**  
332 **capabilities, or because they focus more on the characteristics that drive their preferences.**

333 This brings us to the topic of ecological validity of the tasting, which will be discussed in the  
334 next section.

335

### 336 **3.3. Ecological validity of analytical measurements**

337 One of the outcomes of the final panel discussion of the 2015 Pangborn Sensory  
338 Science Symposium highlighted the need to increase the ecological validity of both sensory  
339 and consumer science measurements, and, particularly, to account for individual differences  
340 in perception and decision making (Jaeger et al., 2016). This is very important when thinking  
341 about preferences, but not less important for food perception and description, when the aim  
342 is to explain and predict consumer preferences.

343           Sample preparation is the first issue one can think about in this sense. In an analytical  
344 test with trained panels, the samples are often prepared in a way that minimize sample  
345 variation in order to avoid adding another source of variability to the data. This include, among  
346 many others, practices such as: bulking of beverages, sample cutting to homogenize sample  
347 sizes, taking out the crust of bread products, chocolate melting and re-forming to get rid of  
348 brands or recognizable shapes, cutting bite-size pieces or serving semi-solid samples directly  
349 as a spoonful to assess temporal perception, or using of red-light to avoid colour influence on  
350 flavor perception. These practices will obviously make the panel assessment quite far to what  
351 consumers will experience in real life consumption.

352           Going to the sensory perception itself, consumers usually spend little time and do not  
353 often engage in deep cognitive processing to evaluate the characteristics of food products  
354 when making their food choices (van't Riet et al., 2011). Nevertheless, when performing  
355 classical analytical testing, trained panelists are encouraged to engage in deep analytical  
356 processing, which is also often the case in some consumer based descriptive tests, which  
357 would not reflect how consumers process information when choosing or consuming food in  
358 their everyday life.

359           For example, classical discrimination tests, such as paired comparison and triangle  
360 tests, lack ecological validity as consumers would very unlikely evaluate two products from  
361 **different batches** at the same time. In this sense, the A not-A methods provide a more  
362 ecologically valid evaluation. Assessors are familiarized with a product and are then given and  
363 are asked to indicate whether they are identical to the first product or not (Lee, van Hout, &  
364 O'Mahony, 2007). **This type of evaluation is more similar what they would do in their real life**  
365 **when comparing to batches of the same product: they would have to compare the batch they**  
366 **are consuming with their memory of the previous consumed batch. Recent research has**  
367 **shown that the A not-A test can be superior in discrimination than the triangle or tetrad test**  
368 **(Jeong, Kang, Jeong, Song, Hautus, & Lee, 2016).**

369           **Something similar happens with descriptive methods, some methods induce an**  
370 **analytical evaluation, focusing on specific individual attributes, whereas other methods enable**

371 a more holistic evaluation based on products as a whole (Sloman, 1996). This could be the  
372 case of Free Sorting, Projective Mapping, or even Polarized Sensory Positioning (PSP) and  
373 Pivot Profile (Varela & Ares, 2012). Those methods are most of the times used with consumers  
374 or semi-trained panels, but could also be used with trained sensory panels. The issue though,  
375 could be that highly trained panelists are not always comfortable when using holistic  
376 approaches to sensory description, if they do not frequently use them within their method  
377 portfolio. In this case, a slightly more analytical approach as PSP could be a good middle-way  
378 solution.

379 In terms of ecological validity in a wider concept, the importance of context on sensory  
380 perception has been probably underestimated as analytical tests are usually conducted blind,  
381 without any type of contextual information. However, the expectations generated by packages,  
382 labels, or even prior information have been reported to extensively influence how people  
383 perceive products (Cardello, 2007; Piqueras-Fiszman & Spence, 2015). In addition, the  
384 processes involved in the transformation of a sensory stimulus into an intensity rating have  
385 been reported to be influenced by contextual information (Schifferstein, 1996). This suggests  
386 that results from analytical tests are expected to be influenced by context and external  
387 information about products. However, this area of research has not received enough attention  
388 yet and could contribute to a better understanding of how expectations shape sensory  
389 perception. In the future, one could think of performing analytical tests in a natural situation,  
390 immersive reality or evoked contexts in order to consider the situational and contextual factors  
391 that influence sensory perception (Jaeger et al., 2016). This has been used with success in  
392 affective tests in the last years and might as well be relevant to obtain more ecologically valid  
393 analytical data in the future.

394 Further than this, trained panels do not usually take into account individual differences  
395 in sensory perception. Interest in understanding how individual differences on sensory  
396 perception (PTC, PROP, Thermal Taster Status, or other pheno- and genotypic differences)  
397 influence consumer hedonic reaction to food products and their food choices is expected to  
398 increase in the future (Jaeger et al., 2016). This type of research should be carried out with a

399 large number of participants in order to account for those differences, which is not normally  
400 the case with trained sensory panels. In this context, consumer panels will be of great  
401 importance. This could be an important factor to have in mind in the future, particularly when  
402 thinking of food companies wanting to develop personalized products.

403         Again, consumer panels seem to be relevant sensory descriptive tools when  
404 highlighting the sensory characteristics that underlie hedonic perception, when describing their  
405 own perception and when more ecologically valid tests are sought.

406

#### 407 **3.4. On not-that-representative consumers and not-that-trained trained panelists**

408         When discussing the use of trained and consumer panels it is worth highlighting the  
409 importance of best practices in the design of analytical tests. Sometimes when performing a  
410 sensory or a consumer test, objectives are discussed, methodological implications evaluated  
411 and decided, and then, reality bites: consumers are not-that-representative, trained panelists  
412 are not that-trained, and sometimes even the trained panel is actually not-that-panel. These  
413 situations frequently happen in both academic and industrial research settings.

414         In many academic research papers, we can find numerous examples of consumer  
415 panels that are actually “student panels”, very limited consumer panels in terms of number of  
416 participants, or a not representative or relevant population for answering the research question  
417 under study. This could be quite relevant when drawing conclusions on preference or food  
418 choice, but it could of course be also relevant when exploring product profiling as conclusions  
419 are drawn in terms of the perception of a particular population. Apart from the  
420 representativeness of a consumer panel there is also the reliability issue. There are some  
421 recommendations in terms of minimum number or panelists for alternative product profiling  
422 techniques with consumers like CATA and Projective Mapping to ensure the stability of the  
423 obtained configurations (Vidal et al., 2014; Ares et al., 2014). However, best practices are not  
424 always followed. The issue of small, not representative consumer panels is also frequent in  
425 industrial R&D settings, mostly for limited resources allocated. Many big companies make use  
426 of their internal employees to run acceptability tests and more recently have started to gather



427 sensory data concurrently (quite often CATA). The main danger here is that preference data  
428 are most probably biased. However, sensory data collected in those tests could also be  
429 compromised, as per the same comments above. In a recent study, Cardinal et al. (2015)  
430 highlighted a consumer segment effect when comparing acceptability ratings and responses  
431 to CATA questions collected with target consumers versus convenience consumer samples  
432 (food science related consumers), which can lead to erroneous product development  
433 directions. Thus, recruitment of users of the category is not only relevant when collecting data  
434 (Lawless & Heymann, 2010), but also for sensory profiling objectives.

435 Online consumer panels are also worth mentioning here. With the widespread of  
436 internet and social media, it is quite simple to put together a survey and reach consumers with  
437 a link in an e-mailing list, a Facebook page or a tweet. With regards to analytical tests, one  
438 could think of profiling food concepts, labels or packaging, for example. The use of online tools  
439 for this could be tempting and indeed useful if it is possible to know the source of the data, but  
440 in the same way very risky if we do not get a clear view of whom these consumers are, with a  
441 result of a potentially big, but unrepresentative panel. On the other hand, sources like  
442 Facebook fan pages or specialist blogs could be a great source of direct information from  
443 likers and heavy users of the products, which could be advantageous if feedback is wanted  
444 from heavy users.

445 Regarding trained panels, the authors have frequently seen cases, particularly in  
446 industrial settings, in which decisions are made based on results from poorly trained and  
447 maintained panels. It is common practice to use internal employees that, even if quite  
448 unbiased and recruited from outside of the product development teams, are not very steady  
449 in terms of participation in the panel, as these activities quite often come last in their to-do  
450 lists. In fact, this produces a “pool of semi-trained assessors” rather than a trained panel.  
451 Moreover, even when the panel is more or less constant as a group, many times the training  
452 opportunities are scarce, and their performance consequently poor.

453 Particular mention should also be made to “expert panels”, used in industries such as  
454 coffee, perfume, tea, tobacco or wine. These tasters are usually very sensitive to many

455 characteristics of a single product through experience and are able to make rapid judgements  
456 for sample and material selection. They are usually not selected or trained, and work  
457 individually or in small groups, but not as part of a calibrated panel. Many times, they also  
458 know in advance certain information about the products. Feria-Morales (2002) does a good  
459 account of the flaws and biases of using expert panels in the coffee industry, recommending  
460 the shift towards the use of standard sensory procedures and trained sensory panels. Zamora  
461 & Guirao (2002) compared trained assessors with experts for wine assessment, concluding  
462 that the trained panel reached a higher level of consensus, while the experts were more  
463 discriminative among attributes. Lawless and Heymann (2010) nicely explain the historical  
464 bases of expert panels and highlight that for quality assessment of certain food commodities  
465 such as olive oil, they could still have a place in the sensory toolbox, guided by very precise  
466 written standards of the International Olive Oil Council (COI), for example. However, these  
467 methods are not well suited to formulated or more complex foods that do not fall into the  
468 category of a standardized commodity.

469         Thus, apart from considering the objectives of a test, one should do a reality check. Is  
470 my trained panel really a trained panel? Is it worth spending time and effort to collect data with  
471 the “trained panel” and get a not very reliable outcome? Or shall I explore analytical tests with  
472 consumers instead or make use of methods better suited for semi-trained assessors? When  
473 working with consumers, one should also look at representativeness including frequency of  
474 usage of the product, and best practices leading to validity and reliability of the obtained  
475 results.

476

#### 477 **4. Recommendations for the use of consumer panels for analytical tasks**

478         Research in the last decades has shown that consumer panels are indeed able to  
479 evaluate the sensory characteristics of products and to provide similar results to trained  
480 assessors. However, experimental procedures for collecting analytical tasks with consumers  
481 cannot be identical to those used with trained assessors as they should take into account the  
482 lack of training.

483           Although both panels can provide reliable results, the answer to the “trained assessors  
484 vs. consumers” controversy strongly depends on the objective of the study. In specific  
485 circumstances, trained panels are clearly the best alternative because untrained consumer  
486 panels are not feasible and/or would not provide reliable results.

487           Quality control is the best example of a specific task in which trained panels could  
488 probably never be replaced by consumer panels. In quality control, trained assessors are  
489 needed to detect small variations in the product and to detect the presence of sensory defects  
490 before a batch goes out to the market (Moskowitz, 1997). Research has shown that some  
491 consumers may not be able to detect sensory defects (e.g. Mörlein, 2012), or even prefer  
492 defective samples (e.g. Ramírez, Hough, & Contarini, 2007). Mismatch between quality  
493 ratings given by experts and consumer hedonic scores has been reported to exist, particularly  
494 in complex products such as wine and olive oil. In this last product category, Delgado &  
495 Guinard (2011) showed that for the majority of consumers hedonic scores did not match  
496 quality experts’ ratings as defects, such as fusty, musty and rancid, were identified as drivers  
497 of liking. Consumers may not be able to detect off-flavours or to associate them with product  
498 deterioration, suggesting that trained assessor panels may be always preferred to consumer  
499 panels for this type of task. Besides, even if consumers could accurately detect and identify  
500 sensory defects it would not be feasible to repeatedly gather consumers to evaluate all the  
501 batches produced by a company.

502           On the other hand, if sensory information is going to be used to guide product  
503 development or to identify drivers of consumers' liking, trained and consumer panels most of  
504 the time provide similar information (e.g. Bruzzone et al., 2015) and therefore consumer  
505 panels tend to be a good methodological choice. This is particularly the case in the first stages  
506 of new product development, as prototypes can be selected based on results from consumer  
507 panels using alternative methodologies. **However, it should be taken into account that when**  
508 **dealing with subtle differences among samples, trained assessors are expected to outperform**  
509 **consumers in their ability to discriminate among samples (Antúnez et al., 2016; Ares et al.,**  
510 **2015; Torri et al., 2013).** In addition, it should be acknowledged that trained assessor data

511 may be more actionable than consumer responses in new product development (Moskowitz  
512 et al., 2003). Although consumers can accurately detect differences among samples, it may  
513 be difficult to translate consumer data to actionable directions to product developers,  
514 particularly during product reformulation. Trained panels usually provide accurate intensity  
515 information that enables product developer to make specific changes in product formulation  
516 to achieve the desirable modification in the sensory characteristics of products. This type of  
517 information would be difficult to obtain with consumer panels. Besides, given the iterative  
518 nature of new product development, it may be necessary to compare prototypes obtained in  
519 different moments in time. In these situations, it may be difficult to compare results obtained  
520 with consumer panels, although methodologies based on the comparison with references can  
521 provide accurate results (Antúñez, Salvador, de Saldamando, Varela, Giménez, & Ares, 2015;  
522 Teillet, Schlich, Urbano, Cordelle, & Guichard, 2010). A similar limitation may be faced when  
523 evaluating very complex or saturating products.

524         The ecological validity of analytical measurements should also be taken into account  
525 as it can largely affect the ability to predict consumer hedonic perception and choice,  
526 regardless of the type of panel being considered. Researchers are encouraged to further study  
527 the influence of contextual and situational variables on sensory perception and results from  
528 analytical tests.

529

## 530 **5. Conclusions and remaining challenges**

531         The debate of whether consumer or trained panels should conduct analytical tests has  
532 already come to an end as the hypothesis that consumers are capable of evaluating the  
533 sensory characteristics of products has become increasingly accepted within the sensory  
534 science community. Research conducted during the last decade has shown that, using  
535 appropriate methodologies, consumers are able to provide accurate and reliable information  
536 about the sensory characteristics of products. According to the authors, whether consumers  
537 or trained assessors should be used depends on the specific circumstances of the study.  
538 Objectives and resources must be carefully considered, together with the ecological validity

539 implications around the specific research questions of the project. In most situations,  
540 consumers can replace trained assessors and provide actionable information to guide  
541 decision making in both industrial and academic applications. However, sensory and  
542 consumer researchers should be aware that trained assessors are still necessary in several  
543 specific situations. We hope that the issues raised in the present paper could shed light on  
544 which situations each panel can be used, contributing to the definition of new best practices  
545 in the field. **In addition, it seems that the time has come for sensory science professors to  
546 update the curricula of their courses to introduce their students to the current views about  
547 analytical tests and put away the consumer vs. trained assessor dichotomy.**

548

549

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557

558

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